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From outburst to quiescence: the decay of the transient
AXP XTE J1810-197

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ABSTRACT

Aims. XTE J1810-197 is the first transient anomalous X-ray pulsar ever discovered. Its highly variable X-ray flux allowed us to study the timing and spectral properties of a magnetar candidate over a flux range of about two orders of magnitude.

Methods. We analyzed nine XMM-Newton observations of XTE J1810-197 collected over a four year baseline (September 2003–September 2007). EPIC PN and MOS data were reduced and used for detailed timing and spectral analysis. Pulse-phase spectroscopic studies were also carried out for observations with a high enough signal-to-noise.

Results. We find that (i) a three-blackbody model reproduces the spectral properties of XTE J1810-197 over the entire outburst statistically better than the two blackbodies model previously used in the literature, (ii) the coldest blackbody is consistent with the thermal emission from the whole surface and has temperature and radius similar to those inferred from ROSAT observations before the outburst onset, (iii) there is a spectral feature around 1.1 keV during six consecutive observations (since March 2005). If this stems from proton resonant cyclotron scattering, it would imply a magnetic field of \( \sim 2 \times 10^{14} \) G. This closely agrees with the value from the spin period measurements.

Key words. moon – stars: magnetic fields – stars: neutron – X-rays: stars

1 Introduction

Even though isolated neutron stars as a whole are relatively poor X-ray emitters, two small classes of objects stand out for their widely variable high-energy emission, which covers several orders of magnitude both in intensity and in timescales. These objects are the anomalous X-ray pulsars (AXPs; ten objects plus one candidate) and soft \( \gamma \)-ray repeaters (SGRs; 5 objects plus 2 candidates; for a review see Woods et al. 2006). It is believed that AXPs and SGRs are linked at some level, owing to their similar timing properties (spin periods in the 2–12 s range and period derivatives \( P \) in the \( 10^{-11} \) to \( 10^{-13} \) s s\(^{-1}\) range). Both classes have been proposed to consist of neutron stars whose emission is powered by the decay of their extremely strong internal magnetic fields (\( > 10^{15} \) G; Duncan & Thompson 1992; Thompson & Duncan 1995). Different types of X-ray flux variability are displayed by AXPs. From slow and moderate flux changes (up to a factor of a few) on timescales of years (virtually all of the objects of the class), to moderate-intense outbursts (flux variations of a factor up to 10) lasting for 1–3 years (1E 2259+586, and 1E 1048.1–5973); to dramatic and intense SGR–like burst activity (fluxes of \( 10^{36} \) to \( 10^{38} \) erg) on subsecond timescales (4U 0142+614, XTE J1810-197, 1E 2259+586, and 1E 1048.1–5973; see for a review of the X-ray variability see Kaspi et al. 2007). The first notable recorded case of flux variability was the 2002 bursting/outbursting event detected from 1E 2259+586, in which a factor of \( \sim 10 \) persistent flux enhancement in an AXP was followed by the onset of bursting activity during which the source emitted more than 80 short bursts (Gavriil et al. 2004; Woods et al. 2004). The timing and spectral properties of the source changed significantly and attained the pre-bursting activity values within a few days. However, it was only in 2003 that the first transient AXP (TAXP), namely XTE J1810-197, was discovered (Ibrahim et al. 2004). This source was serendipitously detected by the RXTE satellite, and then localized and studied in greater detail with the Chandra and XMM-Newton observatories (Gotthelf et al. 2004; Israel et al. 2004; Rea et al. 2004; Gotthelf & Halpern 2005, 2007). It displayed a persistent flux enhancement by a factor of \( > 100 \) with respect to the quiescent luminosity level of \( \sim 10^{33} \) erg s\(^{-1}\) (as observed by ROSAT and Einstein observatories). Unfortunately, the initial phases of the outburst were missed so we do not know whether a bursting phase, similar to that of 1E 2259+586, also occurred for this source soon after the onset of the outburst. However, four bursts were detected by RXTE between September 2003 and April 2004 and...
unambiguously associated with XTE J1810-197 (Woods et al. 2005). By using Very Large Array (VLA) archival data, Helfand et al. (2005) discovered a transient radio emission with a flux of $\sim 4.5 \pm 0.5$ mJy at 1.4 GHz at the Chandra X-ray position of XTE J1810-197. Only later its emission was discovered to be pulsed, highly polarized and to have large flux variability even on very small timescales (at variance with all known radio pulsars; Camilo et al. 2006a,b). The VLA data were also used to infer a proper motion of $15.3 \pm 1.0$ mas yr$^{-1}$, which, assuming a distance of $3.5 \pm 0.5$ kpc, results in a transverse velocity of $212 \pm 35$ $\text{km s}^{-1}$ (1$\sigma$ confidence level; Helfand et al. 2007a).

Deep IR observations have revealed a weak, $K_s = 20.8$ mag counterpart, with characteristics similar to those of other AXPs (Israel et al. 2004). Variability in the IR counterpart of XTE J1810-197 was found (Rea et al. 2004), but it did not correlate with the X-ray emission, contrary to earlier claims (Camilo et al. 2007a; Testa et al. 2008). It is unclear at present whether the IR variability correlates with what is observed in the radio pulsed emission (Camilo et al. 2006, 2007a).

TAXP are fairly rare objects: a second TAXP was revealed in 2006 when a candidate AXp, namely CXOU J164710.2-455216, displayed a rather intense burst followed by an outburst with a maximum flux enhancement $> 300$, characterized by extreme changes in both the spectral and timing properties (Muno et al. 2006a,b; Israel et al. 2007a). At variance with XTE J1810-197, CXOU J164710.2-455216 has not shown any radio emission so far. The third TAXP, 1E1547.0+5058, was discovered in 2007 when its X-ray flux rose by a factor of $\sim 20$ above the quiescent flux. As in the case of XTE J1810-197, 1E1547.0+5058 was found to be a transient radio pulsar. Unfortunately, the observations missed the outburst onset (Camilo et al. 2007b; Gelfand & Gaensler 2007; Halpern et al. 2008). The three TAXPs above are characterized by a quiescent state, the timing and spectral properties of which are similar to those of thousands of other X-ray sources present in the RXTE catalog: no pulsations (with the exception of CXOU J164710.2-455216) and soft X-ray spectra well-fitted by a blackbody (BB) model with a $kT$ of about $0.1–0.2$ keV; again with the exception of CXOU J164710.2-455216, which has $kT \approx 0.5$ keV (Muno et al. 2006b; Skinner et al. 2006). The transient nature of these three AXPs implies that a relatively large number of members of this class has not been discovered yet and suggests that others will manifest themselves in the future through their outbursts.

After more than four years of data since the outburst onset, XTE J1810-197 provides the first opportunity to study the timing and spectral evolution of a TAXP as it returns to its quiescent state. Since the first XMM-Newton 2003 observations of XTE J1810-197 (Gotthelf et al. 2004), carried out approximately one year after the outburst, it was evident that the source spectrum (two blackbodies with $kT_1 = 0.29 \pm 0.03$ keV, $R_{BB1} \sim 5.5$ km, and $kT_2 = 0.70 \pm 0.02$ keV, $R_{BB2} \sim 1.5$ km; $L_X \sim 5 \times 10^{34}$ erg s$^{-1}$ in the 0.5–10 keV range for a distance of 3.5 kpc) was significantly different from that in quiescence recorded by ROSAT in 1992 (one BB with $kT \approx 0.18$ keV and $R_{BB} \approx 10$ km; extrapolated luminosity in the 0.5–10 keV range of $L_X \sim 7 \times 10^{33}$ erg s$^{-1}$; Gotthelf et al. 2004). Moreover, the source showed 5.54 s pulsations with a pulsed fraction of about 45% during outburst, while only an upper limit $\sim 24\%$ was inferred from the ROSAT data (Gotthelf et al. 2004).

The above properties raise a number of important, still unanswered questions. Is the soft BB component detected by XMM-Newton evolving into the quiescent BB component seen by ROSAT? What happens to the higher temperature BB component as the source approaches quiescence? What is the pulsed fraction level of the source in quiescence (if detectable)? Is the quiescent emission revealing the neutron star (NS) cooling surface? Did the outburst lead to a permanent change of the timing/spectral properties, such as the pulsed fraction, the flux, and temperature or size of the quiescent BB component of the source? What is the intensity of the magnetic field of this source?

In this paper, we present a first attempt to answer the above questions through a detailed study of the timing and spectral evolution of XTE J1810-197 during its outburst decay in 2003–2007. In Sect. 2 we report the details of the XMM-Newton observations and our data analysis strategy. Results are presented in Sect. 3, while their implications are discussed in Sect. 4.

2. Observations and data analysis

XTE J1810-197 was observed with XMM-Newton at nine epochs, the first time for just $\sim 5$ ks, while the remaining eight observations were deeper, from $\sim 11$ ks to $\sim 60$ ks (Table 1). The XMM-Newton Observatory (Jansen et al. 2001) includes three $\sim 1500$ cm$^2$ X-ray telescopes with an EPIC instrument in each focus, a Reflecting Grating Spectrometer (RGS; den Herder et al. 2001) and an Optical Monitor (Mason et al. 2001). Two of the EPIC imaging spectrometers use MOS CCDs (Turner et al. 2001) and one uses a PN CCD (Strüder et al. 2001). Data were processed with SAS version 7.1.0, using the updated calibration files (CCF) available in June 2008. Standard data screening criteria are applied in the extraction of scientific products. We cleaned all observations from solar flares by collecting CCD lightcurves above 10 keV and applying an intensity threshold. We also used a time window criterion for removing solar flare intervals and checked that no significant spectral differences were present with respect to the intensity threshold method.

During the September 2003 observation, the PN camera was set in primary small window imaging mode with a thin filter (time resolution $\approx 5.07 \times 10^{-3}$ s), while all other observations were in a primary large window imaging mode with a medium filter (time resolution $\approx 4.76 \times 10^{-2}$ s). All observation set-ups for MOS1 and MOS2 cameras were the same, with a time resolution of 0.3 s: prime partial window imaging mode and medium filter. In September 2003 the MOS1 was set in prime full window imaging mode, in September 2004 the MOS2 was in Timing uncompressed mode and data from this were not reduced. To extract more than 90% of the source counts, we accumulated a one-dimensional image and fitted the 1D photon distribution with a Gaussian. Then, we extracted the source photons from a circular region of radius 55$''$ ($\sim 90\%$ of photons) centered at the Gaussian centroid. The background for the spectral analysis was obtained (within the same PN or MOS CCD where the source lies) from an annulus region (inner and outer radii of 65$''$ and 100$''$, respectively) centered at the best source position. In the timing analysis, the background was estimated from a circular region of the same size as that of the source. All of the EPIC spectra were rebinned before fitting, to have at least 40 counts per bin and prevent oversampling the energy resolution by more than a factor of three. Thanks to the time and spectral resolution of the EPIC instruments$^\dagger$, we could carry out timing and spectral analysis over the entire set of observations and the pulse phase spectroscopy (PPS) for the observations with a high enough signal-to-noise. We report the analyses obtained with the PN data and, for comparison, the results from the two MOS cameras.

\footnote{http://xmm.esac.esa.int/external/xmm_user_support/...documentation/uhb_2.5/node28.html}
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Table 1. Main observational parameters for the nine XMM-Newton datasets using for the uncertainties a 1σ confidence level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Epoch</th>
<th>Period s</th>
<th>Instrum. (mode)</th>
<th>Exp. Time s</th>
<th>tot ph-bck ph</th>
<th>( \tau_{\text{max}} ) edge</th>
<th>Energy edge keV</th>
<th>( \chi^2_{\text{red}} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2003</td>
<td>5.53928(3)</td>
<td>EPN</td>
<td>5199</td>
<td>60.136–29.03</td>
<td>&lt;0.17</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS1</td>
<td>7700</td>
<td>30.761–111</td>
<td>&lt;0.02</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS2</td>
<td>7800</td>
<td>26.739–145</td>
<td>&lt;0.03</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10730</td>
<td>71.180–30.77</td>
<td>&lt;0.18</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 2004</td>
<td>5.53945(1)</td>
<td>EPN</td>
<td>12000</td>
<td>27.932–396</td>
<td>&lt;0.03</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS1</td>
<td>12200</td>
<td>28.809–366</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS2</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>89.082–1574</td>
<td>&lt;0.17</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2004</td>
<td>5.53959(6)</td>
<td>EPN</td>
<td>2400</td>
<td>35.515–263</td>
<td>&lt;0.06</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS1</td>
<td>24988</td>
<td>54.279–1760</td>
<td>0.12 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1.14 ± 0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS2</td>
<td>37800</td>
<td>26.501–428</td>
<td>0.09 ± 0.04</td>
<td>1.10 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37800</td>
<td>28.004–330</td>
<td>0.10 ± 0.02</td>
<td>0.98 ± 0.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30000</td>
<td>10.562–344</td>
<td>0.2 ± 0.1</td>
<td>1.13 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18000</td>
<td>6.645–146</td>
<td>&lt;0.4</td>
<td>1.10 (fix)</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 2006</td>
<td>5.54022(3)</td>
<td>EPN</td>
<td>15506</td>
<td>12.296–1197</td>
<td>0.17 ± 0.05</td>
<td>1.11 ± 0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS1</td>
<td>26500</td>
<td>65.39–338</td>
<td>0.3 ± 0.3</td>
<td>1.48 ± 0.06</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS2</td>
<td>28000</td>
<td>7.119–328</td>
<td>0.2 ± 0.1</td>
<td>1.02 ± 0.02</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2006</td>
<td>5.54037(1)</td>
<td>EPN</td>
<td>38500</td>
<td>23.842–2974</td>
<td>0.13 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1.07 ± 0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS1</td>
<td>46800</td>
<td>8.113–552</td>
<td>0.20 ± 0.05</td>
<td>1.04 ± 0.02</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS2</td>
<td>46500</td>
<td>8.836–558</td>
<td>0.08 ± 0.06</td>
<td>0.93 ± 0.03</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 2007</td>
<td>5.54041(1)</td>
<td>EPN</td>
<td>37926</td>
<td>21.903–2215</td>
<td>0.21 ± 0.04</td>
<td>1.07 ± 0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS1</td>
<td>63000</td>
<td>4.410–1897</td>
<td>0.14 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.93 ± 0.02</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS2</td>
<td>53000</td>
<td>4.635–522</td>
<td>0.15 ± 0.05</td>
<td>1.10 ± 0.02</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2007</td>
<td>5.54047(7)</td>
<td>EPN</td>
<td>59014</td>
<td>3.386–4117</td>
<td>0.18 ± 0.02</td>
<td>1.04 ± 0.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS1</td>
<td>67910</td>
<td>1.108–752</td>
<td>0.17 ± 0.04</td>
<td>1.09 ± 0.02</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MOS2</td>
<td>68785</td>
<td>1.328–768</td>
<td>0.10 ± 0.03</td>
<td>1.1 ± 0.1</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a The nine PN spectra were fitted together according to the prescription discussed in the text (3.2.3); the resulting reduced \( \chi^2 \) (\( \chi^2_{\text{red}} \)) is 1.09 (1038 d.o.f.), for the 3BB-edge model.

3. Results

3.1. Timing analysis

The source event arrival time of each observation, in the 0.5–15 keV energy range, were converted into barycentric dynamical times (BDT) by means of the SAS tool barycent (and the (~1″ accurate) source position provided by Helfand et al. (2007). Given the complex time evolution of the period and its derivatives from radio observations (Camilo et al. 2007c), we measured only the local spin period at each single XMM-Newton pointing by means of a phase-fitting technique (events in the 0.5–10 keV energy range were used; see e.g. Dall’Osso et al. 2003, for details on the technique). Different period measurements are independent and not phase-connected. Folding each lightcurve at its measured spin period we obtained the pulse profile and found that it remained single-peaked in all observations (Fig. 1). To estimate the dipole field strength of this source we refer to the phase-coherent measurements of \( \nu \), \( \dot{\nu} \), and \( \tilde{\nu} \) obtained by Camilo et al. (2007c). These authors measured fast variations of \( \tilde{\nu} \) that did not allow to provide a unique value for the magnetic field strength. The frequency derivative was found to change continuously over 300 days of monitoring from \( \sim -3.4 \times 10^{-15} \) s\(^{-2}\) to \( \sim -1.4 \times 10^{-13} \) s\(^{-2}\). Accordingly, we considered the secular spindown trend as bracketed by these limits and derived a corresponding range of values for the magnetic field 1.6 \( \times 10^{14} \) G \( \leq B_{\text{dip}} \leq 2.8 \times 10^{14} \) G through the standard dipole formula.

3.1.1. Pulsed fraction

Given the smooth and nearly sinusoidal pulse shape, we could determine the pulsed fraction (PF) of the signal (defined here as: PF = (\( A_{\text{max}} - A_{\text{min}} \))/(\( A_{\text{max}} + A_{\text{min}} \)) with reasonable accuracy, where \( A_{\text{max}} \) and \( A_{\text{min}} \) are the maximum and minimum of the sinusoidal modulation). Between September 2003 and September 2007, the PF decreased by a factor of about two (between ~50% and ~25%) in the 0.5–10 keV energy interval (Fig. 2). In particular, since March 2005, the PF in the 0.1–2.5 keV band has reached \( \sim (25 \pm 1)% \) (here and throughout this paper uncertainties are given at 1σ confidence level, where not stated otherwise); this value is close to the upper limit (~24%) inferred from the 1992–1993 ROSAT pointings during the quiescent phase of the source (Gottgelb et al. 2004).

Moreover, the PF decreases as a function of time in the same energy band and increases as a function of energy within the same observation, as shown in Table 2. Between 8 and 15 keV, the pulsed fraction is consistent with 100% (3σ confidence level). However, the relatively poor statistics above 10 keV prevented a detailed study of the spectral properties of this high-energy component (see also Sect. 3.2).

3.2. Spectral analysis

In the following we describe a detailed spectral analysis of our XMM-Newton dataset, which includes the outburst evolution down to its almost complete decay. The outburst spectrum in its brightest phase had already been analyzed in the
Fig. 1. XTE J1810-197 PN background-subtracted lightcurves folded at the best period (see Table 1) for each of the nine XMM-Newton observations carried out between September 2003 (S03) and September 2007 (S07), and for different energy intervals: 0.5–1 keV, 1–2 keV, 2–3 keV, 3–5 keV, 5–8 keV, and 8–15 keV. The last two energy intervals have been merged together since the September 2005 (S05) pointing in order to improve the statistics.

Fig. 2. Evolution of the spectral parameters for the 2BB (left panel) and 3BB (right panel) models together with the pulsed fraction (PF) as a function of the 0.6–10 keV flux. The cross in the left panel (first, second, and third rows), and in the right panel (first row) marks the ROSAT data.

The literature with a two-blackbody spectral model (2BB, Gotthelf et al. 2004; Gotthelf & Halpern 2005). On the other hand, the quiescent emission from the source recorded by ROSAT was consistent with a different, single BB. Starting from this, our strategy was then twofold: first we tried to apply the 2BB model to the whole XMM-Newton dataset to check whether one of the two components evolved smoothly to the quiescent one. Then we tested an alternative possibility, namely that the quiescent component was independent and always present, the spectrum of the outburst being superimposed on it. This led us to consider a
phenomenological model including three different thermal components ($3BB$ model). In this scenario, as the outburst flux decays, its spectral components progressively fade away, eventually revealing the underlying quiescent emission. As such, the quiescent component could be tentatively identified with the thermal emission from the whole NS surface.

### 3.2.1. Thermal components

Following Gotthelf et al. (2004) and Gotthelf & Halpern (2005), we applied the $2BB$ spectral fit to the fading phases of XTE J1810-197 until September 2007, when the source flux was ~1.2 times higher than the pre-outburst level ($\chi^2_{\text{red}} \approx 1.26$ for 1058 d.o.f., which is at 6σ from the expectation value; $N_{\text{H}} = (0.60 \pm 0.01) \times 10^{22}$ cm$^{-2}$; see also Table 3). The $2BB$ model (see also Perna & Gotthelf 2008, for a detailed study) corresponds to a scenario in which one of the two $BB$ naturally evolves into the single $BB$ spectrum detected by ROSAT in the quiescent state, whereas the other (hard) $BB$ just fades away. The results of this approach showed that, when the cold $BB$ component smoothly approaches the quiescent one (see Fig. 2, left panel, 2nd and 3rd plot), several ambiguities arise. The radius of the hot $BB$ does not decrease monotonically with flux (time): after 2.5 years of smooth decrease it starts increasing in September 2006 (left panel, 4th plot). At the same epoch its temperature drops rapidly to reach a value comparable to that of the cold $BB$ in the first part of the outburst (Fig. 2, left panel, 5th plot). Moreover, neither spectral component is able to account for the flattening of the pulsed fraction at the 25% level (Fig. 2, left panel, 1st plot).

These findings suggest that the observed emission might come from a more complex structure than a simple two-component model and that we might be seeing different parts of the whole structure as the flux decreases. With this scenario in mind we repeated the spectral analysis using the $3BB$ model discussed in the previous section.

For the first six observations (during which the total flux is significantly higher than the pre-outburst one), all parameters of the $3BB$ model were left free to vary except for $N_{\text{H}}$, which was constrained to be the same in all observations. We found that it is always possible to fit the first 6 data sets (September 2003–March 2006) with a $3BB$ model without forcing the spectral parameters ($3BB$: $\chi^2_{\text{red}} = 1.1$, 812 d.o.f.; $2BB$: $\chi^2_{\text{red}} = 1.21$, 824 d.o.f., F-test probability $\approx 10^{-11}$ to $7\sigma$). The extra $BB$ has a characteristic temperature $kT \sim 0.14$ keV that is

2 $\sigma_{\chi^2} = 2$ d.o.f. $\Rightarrow \sigma_{\chi^2} = \sqrt{2}$ d.o.f., $\chi^2 = \chi^2_{\text{red}} \times \sigma_{\chi^2}$, where $x$ is the distance from the expectation value of $\chi^2$ in units of $\sigma_{\chi^2}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Epoch</th>
<th>PF$_{0.5-1}$keV %</th>
<th>PF$_{1-2}$keV %</th>
<th>PF$_{2-3}$keV %</th>
<th>PF$_{4-5}$keV %</th>
<th>PF$_{5-8}$keV %</th>
<th>PF$_{8-15}$keV %</th>
<th>PF$_{15-40}$keV %</th>
<th>PF$_{40-144}$keV %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2003</td>
<td>55 ± 2</td>
<td>49.3 ± 0.5</td>
<td>57.0 ± 0.8</td>
<td>58.7 ± 0.9</td>
<td>63 ± 3</td>
<td>100 ± 20</td>
<td>32.4 ± 0.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 2004</td>
<td>25 ± 1</td>
<td>37.2 ± 0.5</td>
<td>42.1 ± 0.8</td>
<td>51 ± 1</td>
<td>66 ± 3</td>
<td>50 ± 25</td>
<td>42 ± 0.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2004</td>
<td>27 ± 1</td>
<td>40.2 ± 0.7</td>
<td>49.6 ± 0.7</td>
<td>57.6 ± 0.9</td>
<td>63 ± 2</td>
<td>50 ± 12</td>
<td>43.5 ± 0.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 2005</td>
<td>20 ± 1</td>
<td>33.1 ± 0.6</td>
<td>44 ± 1</td>
<td>51 ± 1</td>
<td>49 ± 5</td>
<td>100 ± 40</td>
<td>34.8 ± 0.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2005</td>
<td>13 ± 2</td>
<td>27.2 ± 0.9</td>
<td>32 ± 2</td>
<td>30.0 ± 0.9</td>
<td>60 ± 11</td>
<td>60 ± 30</td>
<td>25.8 ± 0.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 2006</td>
<td>13 ± 2</td>
<td>30 ± 1</td>
<td>32 ± 3</td>
<td>26 ± 6</td>
<td>70 ± 29</td>
<td>20 ± 48</td>
<td>26 ± 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2006</td>
<td>16 ± 1</td>
<td>29.3 ± 0.9</td>
<td>42 ± 3</td>
<td>90 ± 72</td>
<td>90 ± 72</td>
<td>40 ± 41</td>
<td>26 ± 0.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 2007</td>
<td>15 ± 2</td>
<td>32 ± 1</td>
<td>36 ± 3</td>
<td>60 ± 10</td>
<td>30 ± 33</td>
<td>40 ± 10</td>
<td>25 ± 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 2007</td>
<td>15 ± 2</td>
<td>28.1 ± 0.7</td>
<td>41 ± 3</td>
<td>50 ± 10</td>
<td>40 ± 50</td>
<td>80 ± 25</td>
<td>24.5 ± 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.2.1.2. Temperature (keV) and radius (km) evolution with time of $BB_{\text{hot}}$ and $BB_{\text{cold}}$ in the $2BB$ model, with uncertainties at 1σ confidence level (68%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Epoch</th>
<th>$kT_{\text{cold}}$ keV</th>
<th>$R_{\text{cold}}$ km</th>
<th>$kT_{\text{hot}}$ keV</th>
<th>$R_{\text{hot}}$ km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 03</td>
<td>0.275 ± 0.009</td>
<td>5.8 ± 0.4</td>
<td>0.685 ± 0.005</td>
<td>1.54 ± 0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 04</td>
<td>0.275 ± 0.009</td>
<td>5.0 ± 0.4</td>
<td>0.699 ± 0.009</td>
<td>1.07 ± 0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 04</td>
<td>0.251 ± 0.005</td>
<td>5.6 ± 0.4</td>
<td>0.677 ± 0.005</td>
<td>0.85 ± 0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 05</td>
<td>0.225 ± 0.004</td>
<td>6.0 ± 0.4</td>
<td>0.597 ± 0.006</td>
<td>0.71 ± 0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 05</td>
<td>0.205 ± 0.004</td>
<td>6.6 ± 0.4</td>
<td>0.54 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.51 ± 0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 06</td>
<td>0.192 ± 0.004</td>
<td>7.2 ± 0.5</td>
<td>0.50 ± 0.02</td>
<td>0.42 ± 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 06</td>
<td>0.177 ± 0.004</td>
<td>8.2 ± 0.5</td>
<td>0.36 ± 0.02</td>
<td>0.8 ± 0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 07</td>
<td>0.170 ± 0.005</td>
<td>9.0 ± 0.7</td>
<td>0.33 ± 0.02</td>
<td>1.0 ± 0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 07</td>
<td>0.167 ± 0.004</td>
<td>9.3 ± 0.7</td>
<td>0.33 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.9 ± 0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given the stability of both the flux and spectrum over the last three observations (less than 8% variation in flux in the 0.6–10 keV energy band; September 2006–2007), we merged the source photon lists to obtain a higher S/N spectrum. The calibration of the PN instrument has proved to be also very stable (Krishch et al. 2005). The analysis of the merged spectrum significantly improved the determination of the spectral parameters as compared to each single spectrum (see Table 4). Furthermore, the hotter $BB$ component remained statistically non-significant also in the merged spectrum. We could thus obtain a more accurate (3σ) upper limit on its flux: $F_{\text{flux}} < 4.5 \times 10^{-14}$ erg cm$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ in the 0.6–10 keV energy band.
needed anymore and we could set a 3σ upper limit on its flux of \( \sim 8.7 \times 10^{-14} \text{ erg cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \). The above-mentioned flattening of the pulsed fraction at this epoch could be accounted for quite naturally by the disappearance of this hot component (Fig. 3).

We also attempted to estimate the pulsed fraction of the quiescent emission, which we tentatively attributed to the NS surface, taking only the last three observations into account, so that the hotter BB was absent. We note that this is only possible in our scenario since the softer component in the 2BB model is still evolving towards quiescence.

We express the PF in the 0.1–1 keV band as

\[
\text{PF}_{(0.1-1 \text{ keV})} = \alpha F_{\text{cold}} + \beta F_{\text{med}},
\]

where \( F_{\text{cold}} \sim 0.9 \) and \( F_{\text{med}} \sim 0.1 \) represent the relative contributions of the two spectral components to the total flux in the 0.1–1 keV band. Correspondingly, \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) represent their PFs. The value of \( \beta \) is obtained from the PF in the 2.8–4.1 keV energy range, where BB\(_{\text{cold}}\) is negligible, and it turns out to be \( \approx 17\% \). The PF of the cold BB, \( \alpha \), is thus completely determined by the measured value of \( \text{PF}_{(0.1-1 \text{ keV})} \). We obtain \( \alpha = 10 \pm 1\% \), a prediction that can be checked once the source returns to the quiescent state.

### 3.2.2. The power-law component

By adopting the 3BB model, we further study the possibility of additional features in the XMM-Newton spectra. In particular, during the first three XMM-Newton observations (2003–2004), the spectral fit residuals suggest the presence of an additional hard component above 7–8 keV (3.2σ confidence level), which we were not able to characterize because of poor statistics in this
band. We can only speculate that it might be related to a hard power-law-like tail (Γ ~ 1.5), likely of magnetospheric origin. A similar component has been detected in other AXPs (Kuiper et al. 2004; Kuiper et al. 2006) and extends up to 200 keV, at least (Gött et al. 2006). Given the marginal significance of this component, we do not attempt to draw any firm conclusion.

### 3.2.3. Narrow spectral feature search

Starting from the 4th observation (March 2005) we note the presence of excess residuals in the data with respect to the 3BB model, at around 1.1 keV (Fig. 4). We tried to account for this by including an absorption edge or a Gaussian line in the model. The value of the former is 1 if $E < E_c$ and $\exp[-\tau_{\text{max}}(E/E_c)^{-3}]$ if $E \geq E_c$, where $E_c$ is the threshold energy and $\tau_{\text{max}}$ the absorption depth at the threshold.

The results of the new spectral model, 3BB plus edge, are consistent with what was obtained with the 3BB model (to within the uncertainties): $N_0 = (0.73 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{22}$ cm$^{-2}$, $kT_{\text{cold}} = 0.153 \pm 0.005$ keV, and $R_{\text{cold}} = 15.4 \pm 1.8$ km ($\chi^2 = 1140$ with d.o.f. = 1038). The energy threshold (~1.1 keV) and $\tau_{\text{max}}$ (~0.2) appear to be constant through the latest six observations (Table 1 and Fig. 5).

This new model has $\chi^2_{\text{red}} = 1.09$, which is 2.2σ from the expectation value. To obtain an estimate of the significance of the edge component we proceeded as follows. We obtained, for each single spectrum, the width of the feature ($\sigma$) using a Gaussian profile and defined the width at the base of the Gaussian ($\Delta E_c$) to be 3σ. We assumed that the width of the feature is independent of the model used to estimate it. Then we calculated the ratio between the whole spectral range of our data, $\Delta W$, and the Gaussian width $\Delta E_c$ (number of trials). Finally, to obtain the total probability of the null hypothesis (no line present), we multiplied the probability level ($P_i$) attributed by an F-Test to the inclusion of the Gaussian by the number of trials on each spectrum ($\Delta W_i/\Delta E_c$) and by the total number of observations (9). The total probability can thus be expressed as $9 \times P_i \Delta W_i/\Delta E_i$.

Fig. 4. $\chi^2$ residuals of 3BB model. From March 2005 (M05) onwards is likely present a feature (edge) around ~1.1 keV.

![Fig. 5. Parameters of the ~1.1 keV edge (energy ($E_c$) and $\tau_{\text{max}}$) vs. the observed flux. For the first three observations $\tau_{\text{max}}$ is an upper limit.](image)

which in our case gave a significance for the edge component at the $\approx 6.5\sigma$ level.

As a further check, we estimated the line significance by running a Monte Carlo simulation of $10^5$ spectra with only the continuum model present (as described in more detail in Rea et al. 2005, 2007). Spectral parameters of the continuum were allowed to vary within 3 sigma from their best fit values and we used the same number of photons of the 4th observation (March 2005). We then counted how many edges, at any energy between 0.5–10 keV, with $\tau > 0.2$ were significantly detected in the generated spectra just due to statistical fluctuations. We found 12 spectra over $10^5$ spectra presenting such a feature, thus leading to an estimated significance level of $\sim 4.1\sigma$ for our 1.1 keV edge. However, so far we have not considered that the feature has been detected in several spectra rather than only in the 4th observation. To this aim we simulated $10^5$ spectra for each of the 6 observations showing the ~1.1 keV edge, using the best-fit spectral parameters and the corresponding number of photons for each observation. However, in these simulations we only considered the energy band 0.5–4 keV in which the spectral variability was not very strong among the 6 observations. This reduces to negligible levels any possible systematic error in the probability calculation due to the spectral variability of the source in connection with instrumental response matrices. We estimated the significance of the edge in each observation as described above, then combined them to obtain a total significance of 5.1σ for the presence of the line.

By using a Gaussian profile to fit the feature, we obtained results similar to those of the edge component, the mean energy of the feature being ($E_c$) ~ 1.15 keV, $\langle \sigma \rangle$ ~ 0.13 keV, while the average equivalent width of the line was ~35 eV ($\chi^2_{\text{red}} = 1.09, 1029$ d.o.f).

The use of different chemical abundances for the interstellar medium (ISM), xphan model in XSPEC, does not produce significant changes in the parameter values or confidence level of the feature, which thus does not seem to depend on the ISM composition.

To test the possible instrumental nature of the feature, we also used the source photons collected by the MOS1 and MOS2 cameras. As in the case of the PN data, we carried out a spectral analysis by using the 3BB model to account for the continuum spectral component. Table 1 summarizes the results of this test. Starting from the 2005 March observation, the edge
component is always detected in all three cameras except for the 2005 September observations MOS2 data, where only an upper limit could be obtained. In this case the inferred upper limit is consistent with the values inferred from all other spectra. This finding further supports the interpretation of the edge as intrinsic to the source.

To further check our results, we analyzed the only CHANDRA public observation of XTE J1810-197 made with ACIS, during March 2006 (∼30 ks). We used CIAO 4.0 software, a standard reduction procedure, and the last calibration files available (3.5.0, 2008 October) for the CHANDRA data analysis. This gives fully consistent results with those obtained with XMM-Newton: $E_0 = 1.05 \pm 0.3$, $\tau_{\text{max}} = 0.38 \pm 0.9$. The significance for including of this component is $\sim 4.5\sigma$, determined using the procedure previously exposed. This further confirms the presence of this feature in the continuum of the source. Therefore in the following we consider the $3\,\text{BB}+$edge as our best spectral model.

### 3.2.4. Other models

An alternative possibility for modeling the data is to consider the effect of resonant Compton scattering (RCS) in the magnetosphere (Thompson et al. 2002). In this scenario, photons emitted by the star surface, at the temperature of $\sim 0.16$ keV, are upscattered by energetic electrons and/or positrons in the magnetosphere. Therefore, the increase in X-ray flux during the outburst would not be due (only) to the appearance of (hotter) regions with enhanced emission, but to a shift in energy of upscattered photons.

We performed some tests with a thermal Comptonization model readily available in XSPEC (CompTT, Titarchuk 1994). Although based on completely different physical assumptions from the RCS, this may at least be used to assess whether the observed spectra can be modeled in terms of Comptonization. We fitted together all the 9 spectra, assuming that the plasma temperature is the same at all epochs as a first approximation. A best fit is obtained with an electron temperature of $kT_e \sim 0.8$ keV, a constant (within uncertainties) temperature for the seed photons of $kT_{\text{seed}} \sim 0.16$ keV, and a plasma optical depth ($\tau_p$) decreasing with time from 32 to 9. The $\chi^2_{\text{red}}$ however, is worse than that of the $3\,\text{BB}$ model, namely $\chi^2_{\text{red}} = 1.3$ for 1066 d.o.f. (this value is at 6.7$\sigma$ from the expectation value). We note also that a scenario in which scattering is (nearly) isotropic and the Comptonizing medium uniformly covers the star surface is hardly compatible with the observed characteristics of the pulsed emission. Indeed, the (relatively) small pulsed fraction of the thermal component would be washed away even more by scattering at higher energies.

Also in this case a feature in the spectrum around 1.1 keV seems to be present. By fitting this feature with an edge component, as in the case of the $3\,\text{BB}$ model, we obtain a significance level of $\sim 6.5\sigma$. Therefore, this feature seems to be independent of the model used for the underlying spectral continuum.

### 3.3. Pulse-phase spectroscopy

To understand the role of each spectral parameter in producing the observed 0.6 ÷ 10 keV flux variation with pulse phase, we carried out a pulse-phase resolved spectroscopic analysis of the XMM-Newton observations with high enough S/N. The spectra of the first three observations (September 2003–September 2004) were considered and divided into 10 phase intervals, in order to rely upon a large enough number of photons. The spectrum in each phase interval was modeled with 3BBs fixing the temperature and radius of $BB_{\text{cold}}$ and $N_{\text{HI}}$ at the average values obtained from the previous analysis without including the edge ($kT_{\text{cold}} = 0.144 \pm 0.003$ keV; $R_{\text{cold}} = 17.9 \pm 1.5$ km, $N_{\text{HI}} = (0.72 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{22}$ cm$^{-2}$).

#### 3.3.1. Pulse-phase spectroscopy with the $3\,\text{BB}$ model

In the following we present the results from two representative cases: the 2003 September and 2004 September observations. The PPS analysis of the $BB$ components after the 2004 September pointing was hampered by poor statistics. All parameters were left free to vary except for $kT_{\text{cold}}$, $R_{\text{cold}}$, and $N_{\text{HI}}$, which were frozen at the values reported in Table 4. We found that the temperature of the medium and hot $BB$s were nearly constant through the whole pulse cycle, whereas the normalization/emitting-area were clearly variable (see Fig. 6).

To study these variations better, we fixed the $BB$ temperatures at their phase-averaged values, leaving only the normalizations ($N$) of the spectra free to vary. These were then converted into the radii of the $BB$ components ($R_{\text{BB}} = \sqrt{N \times D_{10}}$, assuming a source distance of 3.5 kpc). Figures 7, 8, and Table 5 show our results. In particular, in 2003 September the ratio $\Delta = R_{\text{max}}/R_{\text{min}}$ for each component was $\Delta = R_{\text{hot}}/R_{\text{med}} = 1.5 \pm 0.2$, and $\Delta = 1.3 \pm 0.1$, $\Delta_{\text{med}} = 1.2 \pm 0.1$ in 2004 September. In both cases, the modulation of the radii (R) with phase only shows one peak for each pulse cycle. Moreover, they appear to be phase aligned with each other and with the peak of the total pulse profile. This suggests that the two $BB$ regions must be relatively close to each other and probably connected, otherwise a phase lag shift would naturally be expected. The $R$-variation amplitude as a function of phase is more pronounced at higher energies, in agreement with the timing properties of this pulsar, where the pulsed fraction is greater at higher energies.

\[ N = R_{\text{cold}}^2 / D_{10}^2, \]

\[ D_{10} = 0.35 \text{ the distance to the source in units of 10 kpc.} \]
Table 4. Temperature, radius and observed flux (0.6–10 keV) evolution with time of BB medium (med) and hot BB (hot) in the 3BB model with 1σ uncertainties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Epoch</th>
<th>$kT_{\text{med}}$</th>
<th>$R_{\text{med}}$</th>
<th>$F_{\text{med}}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>keV</td>
<td>km</td>
<td>erg s$^{-1}$ cm$^{-2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 03</td>
<td>0.267 ± 0.009</td>
<td>6.9 ± 0.6</td>
<td>$(5 ± 1) \times 10^{-12}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 04</td>
<td>0.29 ± 0.01</td>
<td>4.9 ± 0.4</td>
<td>$(4 ± 1) \times 10^{-12}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 05</td>
<td>0.271 ± 0.006</td>
<td>4.8 ± 0.3</td>
<td>$(2.6 ± 0.5) \times 10^{-12}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 06</td>
<td>0.264 ± 0.007</td>
<td>3.9 ± 0.3</td>
<td>$(1.5 ± 0.3) \times 10^{-12}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 07</td>
<td>0.280 ± 0.009</td>
<td>2.6 ± 0.2</td>
<td>$(9 ± 2) \times 10^{-13}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 07</td>
<td>0.28 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.0 ± 0.2</td>
<td>$(6 ± 2) \times 10^{-13}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 06</td>
<td>0.304 ± 0.006</td>
<td>1.5 ± 0.1</td>
<td>$(5 ± 1) \times 10^{-13}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 07</td>
<td>0.296 ± 0.006</td>
<td>1.5 ± 0.2</td>
<td>$(4 ± 1) \times 10^{-13}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 06–07</td>
<td>0.301 ± 0.003</td>
<td>1.42 ± 0.03</td>
<td>$(4.1 ± 0.2) \times 10^{-13}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Epoch $kT_{\text{hot}}$ | $R_{\text{hot}}$ | $F_{\text{hot}}$ |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 03</td>
<td>0.681 ± 0.005</td>
<td>1.58 ± 0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 04</td>
<td>0.70 ± 0.01</td>
<td>1.07 ± 0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 04</td>
<td>0.68 ± 0.05</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 05</td>
<td>0.61 ± 0.08</td>
<td>0.66 ± 0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 05</td>
<td>0.62 ± 0.03</td>
<td>0.31 ± 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 06</td>
<td>0.61 ± 0.05</td>
<td>0.22 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 06</td>
<td>0.65$^a$</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 07</td>
<td>0.65$^a$</td>
<td>&lt;0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 06–07</td>
<td>0.65$^a$</td>
<td>&lt;0.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ Fixed to the average of the earliest measurements. Upper limits are inferred at 3σ confidence level. $kT_{\text{med}} = 0.144 \pm 0.003$ keV, $R_{\text{med}} = 17.9 \pm 1.9$ km, $N_{\text{H}} = (0.72 ± 0.02) \times 10^{22}$ cm$^{-2}$ are constant throughout the outburst.

3.3.2. Pulse phase spectroscopy of the ~1.1 keV edge

A similar analysis was carried out for the narrow spectral feature detected in the spectra from the 2003 March observation onwards. Given the relatively small number of photons, we reduced the number of phase intervals to five and kept the spectral parameters of the coldest BB fixed (3BB+edge model value). In Fig. 9 and Table 6 we report the result for the 2005 September observation, when there was a possible indication that the component evolved with phase. Although the value of $\tau_{\text{max}}$ is compatible with being constant ($\chi^2 = 6.57$ with 4 d.o.f.), we note that it varies from a minimum of 0.13 ± 0.06 to a maximum of 0.31 ± 0.07 in a smooth way, which we tried to model with a simple sinusoidal function. An F-test for the addition of the sinusoid gave just a marginal detection ($\sim 2.4\sigma$), hence no claim can be made about its actual presence; however this possible modulation is worth further investigation with deeper observations.

4. Discussion

The spectral and temporal information obtained from the nine XMM-Newton observations of the transient anomalous X-ray pulsar XTEJ1810-197 collected in 2003–2007 allowed us to study the source behavior during the outburst to an unprecedented level of detail. As discussed below, our results shed some light on several issues concerning the mechanism powering the emission during the active period. During four years of monitoring, the X-ray flux of XTEJ1810-197 continued to decrease following an almost exponential decay. In September 2007 the source nearly reached its quiescent emission level as recorded by ROSAT in 1992. In the following we summarize the most relevant findings obtained from the XMM-Newton dataset.
Table 6. Evolution of the spectral parameters for the edge component as a function of phase for the 2005 September observation (PN data) with uncertainties at 1σ confidence level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase bin</th>
<th>E (keV)</th>
<th>τmax</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.0–0.2</td>
<td>1.08 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.13 ± 0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2–0.4</td>
<td>1.07 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.26 ± 0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4–0.6</td>
<td>1.06 ± 0.03</td>
<td>0.31 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6–0.8</td>
<td>1.05 ± 0.02</td>
<td>0.21 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8–1.0</td>
<td>1.05 ± 0.03</td>
<td>0.13 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* a The five spectra are fitted together and result in a χ²/ν of 1.01 (for 406 d.o.f.).

4.1. The continuum spectral component

We find that the previously proposed 2BB model for the source spectrum during the outburst fails to account for the time evolution of the hot-temperature spectral components and for the PF flattening (see Sect. 3.2.1). Similar concerns have already been expressed first by Israel et al. (2007b) and after by Perna & Gotthelf (2008), but see e.g. Güver et al. (2007) for a different interpretation. For these reasons we included a third softer thermal component that, as we have shown in the previous sections, improves the spectral fits and also removes the inconsistency that appears in the 2BB model when the evolution of the PF is considered. The temperature and radius of this additional BB turn out to be the same as those inferred from the XTEJ1810-197 ROSAT spectra serendipitously collected since 1992, when the source was in quiescence.

The additional BB component is compatible with being emitted from the whole NS surface and appears to be unaffected by the outburst. Therefore, its nearly constant flux can be taken as representative of the minimum level of emission from the source. It also provides the key to understanding the previously unexplained PF flattening. We emphasize that the 3BB model discussed here should be regarded as a crude, albeit convenient, description of a scenario in which other effects may come into play (see below). Nevertheless, it has the advantage of being independent of the often poorly known details of the atmosphere/magnetosphere of the neutron star. As such, it provides a first estimate of some key physical parameters, like the size and temperatures of the emitting region(s), without relying on any assumptions about the field strength or geometry. Intriguingly, our analysis reveals that only the size of the hot/warm regions varied during the outburst, showing an almost steady decrease, while the temperatures remained nearly constant.

Although present data do not allow us to tightly constrain the shape and relative position of the hot and medium temperature regions on the star, a simple model can be used to gain some insight into the geometry of the source. We assume that emission comes from two concentric zones: an inner, hot cap, and an outer, warm corona, outside of which is the colder surface of the star at \( T_{\text{cold}} \approx 0.16 \text{ keV} \), a picture very similar to that adopted by Israel et al. (2007b). For a NS of 1.4 \( M_\odot \), and typical NS radii, we computed the PFs after applying the proper relativistic corrections. Since the angular (semi)aperture of the two zones follows from the values of the blackbody radii, and their temperatures are just \( kT_{\text{hot}} \) and \( kT_{\text{med}} \), the only free parameter is the angle between the diameter through the cap center and the rotation axis, i.e. the cap’s colatitude. The observed spectrum and the lightcurves also depend on the angle between the line of sight (LOS) and the rotation axis. Without performing any formal fit, we simply tried various combinations of these angles, and we find that there is reasonable agreement between PF data and the model at all epochs for values that are consistent with the range determined by the detailed analysis of Perna & Gotthelf (2008; see also Kramer et al. 2007, for constraints on the pulsar geometry through radio polarimetry). This is expected since the spectrum in the first 4 epochs, which Perna & Gotthelf analyzed, is not very affected by the emission from the coldest part of the star surface.

We note that our analysis based on the 3BB model suggests that the coldest BB component, accounting for the emission from the whole surface, has a low pulsed fraction, 10% ± 1%. If our model is correct, this prediction can be checked once the source returns to the quiescent state. We also note that this value is similar to that found in X-ray Dim Isolated Neutron Stars (XDINSs), where it is believed that the (purely) thermal emission comes from the cooling NS surface (e.g. Haberl 2007). Although magnetars as a class are probably far from being passive coolers, this similarity makes a case for our interpretation of the cold BB component as the quiescent emission from the NS surface, worth being pursued in future studies.

On the other hand, the narrower pulse profile and higher pulsed fraction at increasing energies seems reminiscent of what has been found for other AXPs with RXTE and INTEGRAL in the energy band above 10 keV. Indeed, the narrowing of the peak is coincident with the emergence of a hard power-law component extending from 10–20 keV up to 200 keV at least (Kuiper et al. 2004). The origin of this component is most likely magnetospheric. The marginal detection, during the first three XMM-Newton pointings, of a possible hard power-law tail extending above 10 keV, corroborates this reasoning. However we could not study the power-law tail in more detail, due to insufficient statistics.

We performed also a preliminary test with a different model, a simple Comptonization model available in XSPEC (CompTT), but this gives a worse fit for the data than does the 3BB model. More advanced RCS models in which the optical depth is provided by currents flowing in a twisted magnetosphere (Lyutikov & Gavriil 2006; Fernandez & Thompson 2007; Nobili et al. 2008a,b) appear, on the other hand, promising in explaining the pulse profiles, since the particle density changes with the magnetic colatitude, increasing as one moves from the

\( ^4 \) The radii of these regions are taken from Table 3.
magnetic pole towards the equator. Such a distribution naturally introduces a pulsed fraction even when the surface temperature is homogeneous, as recently shown on the basis of Montecarlo simulations by Nobili et al. (2008a) and Pavan et al. (in preparation). A first attempt to systematically apply RCS to all AXPs, including XTE J1810-197 is reported by Rea et al. (2008). These authors find that the outburst of this source may result from heating of the NS surface, which slowly cools on a timescale of months/years, while the magnetospheric properties only show a small variation during the outburst decay.

4.2. The narrow feature at \( \sim 1 \) keV

Within the framework of the magnetar model, a natural interpretation for the absorption-like feature that is significantly detected in the PN and MOS spectra is that it stems from to a proton cyclotron line. The observation of such a feature would directly probe the magnetic field strength of the AXP, since the line energy is proportional to the field strength:

\[
E_{\text{cyc}} = 0.63(1+z)^{-1} \left( \frac{B}{10^{14} \text{G}} \right) \text{keV}
\]

where \((1+z)^{-1} = (1 - 2 GM/Rc^2)^{1/2} \approx 0.8\) is the gravitational redshift at the neutron star surface. Here we assume \(M = 1.4 M_\odot\) and \(R = 10\) km for the star mass and radius. Despite a few earlier claims (Ibrahim et al. 2002; Rea et al. 2003), unambiguous evidence of absorption lines in the spectra of magnetars has not yet been obtained.

If the edge detected in the XTE J1810-197 spectra is a proton cyclotron feature, its energy implies \(2.1 \times 10^{14} \text{G} \leq B_{\text{prot}} \leq 2.6 \times 10^{14} \text{G}\) when taken at face value. On the other hand, the assumptions of a constant field breaks down if the line originates in a relatively large region on the neutron star surface/magnetosphere. For instance, Zane et al. (2001) estimate that, even for a simple dipolar field, that \(B\) changes in both magnitude and direction will produce a broadening of a feature that is emitted by the whole sphere (typically by 10\%–20\%) and a shift in the line centroid toward lower energies by 20\%–30\% with respect to the prediction based on Eq. (1).

Similar absorption features are also observed in the spectra of XDINSSs (Haberl 2007) and are typically associated with proton cyclotron and/or bound-free, bound-bound transitions in H, H-like and He-like atoms in the presence of relatively high magnetic fields \(B \approx 5 \times 10^{13} - 10^{14} \text{G}\) (e.g. van Kerkwijk & Kaplan 2007; Ho et al. 2003; Pavlov & Bezchastnov 2005). At such large field strengths, exotic molecules might also contribute to line formation (Turbiner et al. 2007; Turbiner & Lopez-Veyra 2006). For XDINSSs, all the above mentioned scenarios provide similar values of \(B\), which turns out to be in agreement with those derived from the spin-down rate (e.g. Kaplan 2008). A similar absorption feature has been discovered in the spectrum of the Rotating Radio Transient (RRAT) detected at X-ray energies, J1819-1458 (McLaughlin et al. 2007). The X-ray spectrum of RRAT J1819-1458 is well-fit by an absorbed blackbody with \(kT = 0.14\) keV with the addition of an absorption feature at \(\sim 1\) keV, which, when interpreted either as a proton cyclotron line or as an atomic transition, yields a magnetic field of \(5 \times 10^{14} \text{G}\), again in rough agreement with the spin-down measure (McLaughlin et al. 2007). In the case of XTE J1810-197, the magnetic field value inferred by using Eq. (1) also appears to be in very good agreement with that obtained through the spin-down measurement: \(2.2 \times 10^{14} \text{G} \leq B_{\text{spin}} \leq 3.1 \times 10^{14} \text{G}\). It is interesting to note that a similar value, \(B = (2.72 \pm 0.03) \times 10^{14} \text{G}\), was obtained by Güver et al. (2007) based on the 2003 September–2006 March XMM-Newton spectrum of XTE J1810-197. It is worth emphasizing that the spectral model used by Güver et al. (2007), has been specifically developed for passively cooling NS and magnetic field stronger than \(5 \times 10^{13} \text{G}\) and is, therefore, rather different from the 3\(BB\) model adopted here.

A different possibility is that the line stems from the presence of iron in proximity to the star surface. In particular, L shell electronic transitions of Iron ions XXII, XXIII, XXIV, have energies between 1.05 and 1.17 keV. However, this requires that the line absorbing region is permeated by a relatively low magnetic field. Future, longer observations, with much higher statistics, might help to understand the nature of this spectral feature better.

4.3. Flux evolution

During approximately four years of XMM-Newton monitoring, the X-ray flux of XTE J1810-197 continued to decrease and is presently \(\sim 15\%–20\%\) above the quiescent level (as determined by ROSAT). In Fig. 10 the evolution of the total X-ray flux in the 0.6–10 keV band is shown, together with the flux evolution of the two hotter \(BBs\), \(BB_{\text{med}}\) and \(BB_{\text{hot}}\). Notably, both the \(BB_{\text{med}}\) and \(BB_{\text{hot}}\) flux evolution are well–fit by an exponential decay plus a constant (\(\chi^2 = 2\) for 5 d.o.f. and \(\chi^2 = 5\) for 2 d.o.f., respectively). The characteristic times are \(\tau = 370 \pm 40\) days and \(\tau = 250 \pm 10\) days for \(BB_{\text{med}}\) and \(BB_{\text{hot}}\), respectively. This might hint at a common physical process responsible for the decay of the two \(BB\) components, though on slightly different timescales. A possible flattening in the \(BB_{\text{med}}\) flux evolution, as suggested by the latest two/three flux measurements, might imply that this component has already reached its quiescent state (see discussion below).

To test this hypothesis further, we superimposed the average spectral model, referring to the latest three XMM-Newton observations (September 2006–2007, where only the \(BB_{\text{cold}}\) and \(BB_{\text{med}}\) components are detected), to the average ROSAT spectrum obtained by merging the three longest pointings (total effective exposure of \(\sim 22\) ks). This model is compared with the single \(BB\) model used so far for the ROSAT data. The result of
this test is shown in Fig. 11. It is evident from the first and second panels that the September 2006–2007 XMM-Newton model agrees with the ROSAT data in considering that no fit has been performed, suggesting that the source might already be back to its quiescent state after March 2007. If correct, the quiescent state of XTE J1810-197 could be characterized by two BBs instead of one BB as discussed so far. However, we emphasize that including of the second BB in the ROSAT spectral fit is formally not statistically required. In fact, we reanalyzed the ROSAT data by using either a single BB or a 2BB model, and in both cases obtained a $\chi^2_{\text{red}} = 0.9$ (left and right panels of Fig. 11). The best fit parameters are: (BB) $N_H = (0.63 \pm 0.05) \times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, $kT = 0.19 \pm 0.03$ keV, and $R < 11 \text{ km}$ ($\chi^2 = 13$ for 14 d.o.f.), (2BB) $N_H = (0.75 \pm 0.08) \times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, $kT_{\text{cold}} = 0.16 \pm 0.03$ keV and $R_{\text{cold}} = 16 \pm 5 \text{ km}$, $kT_{\text{med}} = 0.26 \pm 0.06$ keV and $R_{\text{med}} < 5 \text{ km}$ ($\chi^2 = 11$ for 12 d.o.f.). On the other hand, we note that the XMM-Newton model remains slightly above the ROSAT data mainly around 1 keV, where the $BB_{\text{med}}$ component is maximum. This might suggest that the flux of the latter component is still decaying. Clearly, deeper and higher statistics observation of XTE J1810-197 at some later time might solve this issue.

5. Conclusions

In this paper we reported the detailed timing and spectral analysis of a long-term (4 years) XMM-Newton monitoring program aimed at unveiling the physical processes responsible for the decaying phases of the XTE J1810-197 outburst. The main results can be summarized as follows:

- We find that a spectral model with three blackbodies much better agrees with the data than the previously used model involving two blackbodies. Also, the 3BB model solves several ambiguities in the spectral evolution that were present in the 2BB model.
- The best spectral fit at the different epochs is obtained for three blackbodies plus an edge. The best-fit spectral parameters determined with this model are: $kT_{\text{cold}} \sim 0.15$ keV and $R_{\text{cold}} \sim 15 \text{ km}$. The latter feature is required starting from the 2005 March observation, where residuals with respect to the simple 3BB model are clearly recognized. The coldest BB component temperature and emitting radius remain constant during the whole outburst and are the same as those of the single BB component observed by ROSAT, which is very likely emitted from the whole NS surface. The two hotter and smaller regions (~5 and ~1 km) evolve in size but, again, at constant temperature. The emitting surface decreases in both cases and these components are, therefore, probably responsible for the enhancement of the observed X-ray flux during the outburst.
- Since September 2006 the hottest component, $BB_{\text{hot}}$, is no longer needed in the fit and the 3BB model evolves into a 2BB model. At the same epoch, the average pulsed fraction of the 5.54 s modulation levels up suggesting that the greatest part of the pulsed photons were produced in the $BB_{\text{hot}}$ component.
- During the first three XMM-Newton observations (2003–2004), the spectral fit residuals suggest the presence of an additional component above 7–8 keV, probably a hard tail, possibly similar to the one detected in other AXPs (where it extends up to 200 keV). The limited sensitivity of the EPIC cameras above 10 keV prevented us from performing a detailed analysis of this component.
- By assuming that the feature around 1.1 keV is due to a proton cyclotron resonance, we obtain a surface magnetic field value of $2.1 \times 10^{14} \text{ G} \leq B_{\text{prot}} \leq 2.6 \times 10^{14} \text{ G}$. This estimate is in very good agreement with that obtained from the spin-down measure of $1.6 \times 10^{14} \text{ G} \leq B_{\text{spin}} \leq 2.8 \times 10^{14} \text{ G}$. We can’t currently exclude that the absorption feature originates from L-shell transitions of Fe XXII, XXIII, and XXIV.
- The analysis of the pulsed fraction time evolution as a function of energy shows an increase with energy, within individual observations, and a decrease as a function of time, within the same energy interval. Most of the modulation is ascribed to high-energy photons coming from the two hottest BB emitting regions.
- Pulse-phase spectroscopy shows that emission from the two hotter BBs peaks at the same phase interval, suggesting that they are emitted by close regions (e.g. two concentric zones).
The observed (0.6–10 keV) flux evolution of the $BB_{\text{med}}$ and $BB_{\text{hot}}$ is described well by an exponential decay, with characteristic times of $\tau = 370 \pm 40$ days and $\tau = 250 \pm 10$ days, respectively. This suggests that the same physical process is responsible for the decay of the two thermal components, as already noted by Gotthelf & Halpern (2005). While, in a 2BB model, the hot component shows similar time decay ($\tau \sim 300$ days), the decay time of the colder one is longer (~900 days). This agrees with the presence of a colder component, emitted by the whole star surface.

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